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ABSTRACT

This report addresses the need for teacher induction programs and presents several alternative support mechanisms for beginning teachers, especially those who deal with at-risk students. The report has five sections. Section 1 discusses at-risk students: who they are, their characteristics and instructional needs, and the implications for beginning teachers. Section 2 focuses on beginning teachers and their needs. Section 3 discusses support systems for beginning teachers--their primary goals, the major support issues, types of support programs, and five models of beginning teacher support programs (inservice induction programs, mentoring support programs, local system inservice and "internal" mentoring models, teacher education and local school system models, and comprehensive school system models). Section 4 addresses the issue of the knowledge base needed by teachers, instructional leaders, and supervisors on the positive and negative factors that influence at-risk students. A bibliography to assist in developing such a knowledge base is included in this section arranged under 10 headings: teachers, parents, peers in class, student's self-image, assessment, curricula, instructional materials/aids, classroom environment, school environment, home environment, additional readings, and readings related to at-risk students. Section 5 presents some conclusions. Three appendixes supporting information discussed in the text and four pages of references conclude the report. (JD)

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November 1990

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Providing beginning teachers with additional support mechanisms is crucial. Practitioners and researchers are growing more aware of the difficulties of recruiting and retaining effective teachers for public school programs. Researchers such as Schlechty and Vance (1983) indicate that new teachers are more vulnerable to the stresses of teaching, and they are 2-1/2 time more likely to leave the profession than experienced teachers. Other researchers have identified the needs of beginning teachers, calling for the development of induction and support programs within the school systems.

Veenman (1984) labels the first year of teaching as "reality shock" because of the differences between new teachers perceptions of what teaching should be and what it is in reality. Kurtz (1983) and Lortie (1975) speak of these teachers feeling isolated and frustrated during their initial teaching experiences. Galvez-Hjornevik (1985) reports that beginning teachers often fear that asking for help will be equated with failure or be seen as a sign of incompetence.

In the past, novice teachers have been left alone to cope with their initial teaching anxieties and problems. Today, however, the importance of induction support for teachers should not be overlooked. Researchers, colleges, and school system personnel are working toward solutions that will create a stronger, more committed teaching force. This report addresses the need for teacher induction programs and presents several alternative support mechanisms for beginning teachers, especially those teachers confronting at-risk students.

Beginning teachers are often given the most difficult children and classrooms. Therefore, it is important that these new teachers understand the backgrounds and instructional needs of at-risk students. Children of the 1990s will continue to come from diverse population backgrounds, entering schools with learning handicaps and presenting teachers with challenges and difficulties in the classroom According to a major demographic study completed by Harold Hodgkinson in 1985, public school educators can expect an increase in the number of poor, nonwhite, linguistically diverse students in our schools over the next decade. Currently, one out of every four children entering school is from a family that lives in poverty and one in four will probably not finish high school. Teachers of all grade levels and subjects are asking for assistance in handling the difficulties of teaching this growing population of at-risk students. Discipline problems in the classroom also warrant a system of support for new teachers.

The majority of new teachers today are white females who are not sufficiently prepared for the unpleasant conditions and experiences prevalent in teaching. They are ill-prepared for instructional failures, classroom boredom, lack of student respect for learning, or the feelings of teacher isolation that are so prevalent during the first year. New and often unexpected time demands for paperwork, class preparations, parent communications, and meetings also may lead these newcomers to feeling trapped and overwhelmed. Without support,

they frequently vent their frustrations by becoming dictatorial and controlling, or they leave the profession altogether.

Induction and support programs designed to strengthen the skills and commitment of beginning teachers have surfaced during the past few years. One prominent researcher, Leslie Huling-Austin (1988), has completed a thorough review of the literature on such programs. This review reveals five commonly accepted goals for support programs: 1) to improve the teaching performance of beginning teachers, 2) to increase the retention of promising beginning teachers during the induction year, 3) to promote the personal and professional well-being of teachers, 4) to satisfy mandated requirements related to induction and certification, and 5) to transmit the culture of the system to beginning teachers. Huling-Austin (1988) believes that research data support the success of teacher induction programs. Well-designed and implemented programs can impact teacher commitment, confidence, and effectiveness in the classroom.

Current models of support for new teachers include improved programs of preservice practicum experiences and cooperation between colleges and public schools, high quality induction in-service programs, and mentoring programs. The philosophy and research underlying these programs calls for substantial changes in the way new teachers are introduced to the business of teaching. School systems and colleges must make a commitment to new teachers to give them time and experience in the classroom before expecting them to handle the most serious behavior problems and largest classes. Beginning teachers must be treated as learners, not as veterans. Effective communication and training must also take place for veteran teachers and administrators so that the new "rites of passage" for beginners are more positive, less threatening, and less competitive.

From an in-service perspective, support efforts should begin as soon as new teachers sign their contracts. Employees of the personnel and staff development departments at central offices should familiarize teachers with the organization and help them complete necessary paperwork. New teacher orientations at both the system and local building levels should further this support. Information for new teachers might include:

- Curriculum philosophy, overview, and guides.
- School district/building demographics, procedures, guidelines, and expectations.
- School district personnel benefits and payroll dates.
- Staff development and new teacher support opportunities.
- State certification requirements.
- Ideas for practical classroom management and effective instructional stragegies to be used in the classroom.
- Professional materials and resources available within the school district.
- Support personnel and information on how to access their assistance.

Another means of offering beginning teachers in-service support involves scheduling new teacher support meetings throughout the school year. Such meetings allow new teachers to network with colleagues who are experiencing

similar situations. These meetings may focus on pertinent topics, such as curricular and testing concerns, classroom management, or new strategies and methods that will enable teachers to reach more students in the classroom. Facilitators in charge of these meetings should allow participants to feel that their needs are respected, and that there is time to openly express feelings and concerns.

It is possible that one of the emerging critical roles of the veteran teacher will be that of mentor. Recent reform documents related to teaching and education, (Tomorrow's Teachers, The Holmes Group, 1986; and A Nation Prepared, Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, 1986), have called for more formal differentiation of teaching roles in the schools. The mentor, along with other support systems within the school district and in conjunction with local colleges and universities, could better prepare beginning teachers to handle today's diverse student population.

Mentoring programs within the public schools are seen as one of the strongest support models for teachers today. Terms commonly used to describe the mentoring process are coaching, advising, cooperating, positive role modeling, supporting, and sponsoring (Galvez-Hjornevik, 1985; Schein, 1978). Most descriptions of mentoring include the role of a mentor as a guide and promoter of the protege's professional and personal development. Mentors should be selected for their expertise in effective classroom management and be matched with their proteges according to their age, gender, subject or grade level, and their proximity to the new teacher in the school building.

Several models support the fact that mentoring programs are having an impact on beginning teacher commitment and competency development. The California Mentor Teacher Program (Lowney, 1986) and the Teacher Education And Mentoring (TEAM) program in DeKalb County, GA, are examples of local system in-service models for mentoring. The University of Wisconsin-Whitewater Teacher Induction Program (Varah, Theune, & Parker, 1986) and the Professional Alternative Consortium (Schiff, Irwin, and McBride, 1987) are examples of cooperative mentoring models between teacher education institutions and school systems. A third model is a comprehensive approach involving the restructuring of a district school as a professional development academy (Schlechty, Ingwerson, & Brooks, 1988); this school operates for new teachers much like teaching hospitals function for beginning physicians.

New teachers enter the profession with enthusiasm and an open mind about learning and students. They want to be successful in their classrooms. Programs of support that encourage the sharing of teacher craft knowledge will help to sustain these beginners during the first difficult years. If supported, these new teachers may expand their research for solutions to a multitude of classroom problems. Support programs for beginning teachers are crucial to the development of a stronger, committed teaching force. Our nation cannot afford the loss of human potential, that of a single teacher or that of a single child.

This paper addresses each of these issues and types of support mechanisms in more detail. It also provides an extensive bibliography that can be used as a knowledge base in the development of teacher support programs.

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INTRODUCTION

Finding qualified applicants for teaching positions is becoming an increasingly difficult task for school districts. The teaching force is aging; the number of young people interested in teaching as a career is not meeting the demand in many geographical regions and content areas. In some states, critical teacher shortages already exist in the areas of mathematics, science, foreign languages, and special education. Provisionally certified teachers or long-term substitutes are being used in many schools throughout the nation. And these are just some of the problems facing the teaching profession.

Teaching children is challenging. Diverse student populations and a multitude of serious emotional problems make it very difficult for teachers to succeed with students. The at-risk child can be found in any school in America. Each year, teachers report that students come to school less equipped with the knowledge and skills needed for learning and more handicapped by problems, such as neglect, abuse, transiency, or family stress. Children show little respect for adult authority and frequently do not have adult role models whom they respect and emulate. Yet, new teachers still enter teaching positions expecting to face children who will listen, obey, and learn. They are prepared to use traditional methods and materials to teach students in the '90s. They are often shocked to find a lack of family support for education and are frustrated by their failure to reach students.

Getting qualified people to enter the teaching profession is difficult enough. However, the alarming attrition rate of new teachers further compounds the seriousness of the problem. Current estimates indicate that nationally as many as 15 percent of new teachers leave after their first year of teaching. They are 2-1/2 times more likely than experienced teachers to leave the profession. A majority of those leaving the profession are among the most academically talented (Schlechty and Vance, 1983). The first year exodus, however, is just the beginning of problems in retaining new teachers. According to Schlechty and Vance (1983):

> **...it seems reasonable to estimate that from 40% to 50% of first year teachers this year will not be teaching 7 years from now. Furthermore, two-thirds to three-fourths of those who leave will do so in their first four years of teaching. Our best estimate is that first-year teachers leave teaching at an annual rate of 15%, that the rate for second-year teachers is approximately the same, and third-year teachers leave at a rate of approximately 10%. (p.476)**

Many times beginning teachers are given the most difficult classes and students. Instead of nurturing beginning teachers, they are thrown into the fire. These concepts of baptism by fire and survival of the fittest may produce some good teachers, but it also chases many promising novice teachers from the ranks before they have had time to hone their teaching skills.

Because of the difficulties and costs of both initial teacher recruitment and the retention of new teachers, it is important that new teachers are provided

with assistance during their initial teaching experiences. Because many of these beginning teachers must teach at-risk students, it is important that this assistance include background information on the needs of these students. The purpose of this document is to address the need for support programs during this period of induction into teaching (also known as teacher induction programs), presenting several alternative support mechanisms for beginning teachers, especially for teachers of at-risk students.

To accomplish this purpose, the paper will first discuss at-risk students--who they are, what are their characteristics and instructional needs, and what are the implications for beginning teachers. The next section will focus on beginning teachers and their needs. The third section addresses support systems for beginning teachers: what should be their primary goals, and what are the major support issues and types of support programs. This section concludes with an overview of five type of teacher induction support programs. A knowledge base based of the current literature is presented in the fourth section, and is organized into 12 different sections addressing different relevant aspects of teaching. A fifth section present some brief conclusions. Three appendices support information discussed in the text.

Throughout this document the terms "new teachers," "beginning teachers," and "novices" will be used synonymously. Many states and school systems consider new teachers those with 0-3 years of classroom experience. These first three years are often seen as an period of internship into the teaching profession. However, there is frequently little or no special supervision or support during this formative period. Historically, informal "buddy systems" have been the only support for new teachers. Too often these beginning teachers have had to cope alone with first-year frustrations and an increasingly difficult set of student discipline and motivation problems.

Recent reform documents related to teaching and education (Tomorrow's Teachers, The Holmes Group, 1986; A Nation Prepared, Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, 1986) have called for more formal differentiation of teaching roles in the schools. The authors of this monograph believe that one of the emerging critical roles of the veteran teacher will be that of mentor. The mentor, along with the other support systems developed within the school district and in conjunction with local college and university support, will help to create a stronger, more committed teaching force. With veteran teachers in the mentor role, schools can provide guidance for new teachers and help them adjust to their multifaceted responsibilities. Equally important, mentors will be in a position to convey, through example, their continuous dedication, efforts, perseverance, and fortitude to try to reach all students. As a result, beginning teachers can be better prepared to accept the challenges presented by today's diverse student populations, which might reduce the significant turnover rate of beginning teachers.

SECTION I
THE AT-RISK LEARNER

DEFINING WHAT IT MEANS TO BE AT RISK

Throughout this paper, the terms "at risk" and high risk" will be used interchangeably to describe:

> Students who may exhibit the following characteristics: absenteeism, truancy, frequent tardiness, poor grades, low mathematics and reading test scores, failure in one or more grades, lack of identification with school, disruptive behavior and rebellious behavior toward authority, verbal and language deficiencies, and an inability to tolerate structured activities.

This definition reflects the authors' view of at-risk students. However, other definitions and factors exist for the purpose of classifying these students. Many school definitions of at-risk students came as a response to the infamous commission report, A Nation At Risk (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). Some school districts set their own specific, local criteria for identifying at-risk children. These at-risk factors might include:

* Academic Factors. This type of child might be a slow learner, over-age child, underachiever, or a compensatory education student.

* Attitudinal Factors. This type of child could be an adjudicated delinquent, be a nonparticipant in school activities and organizations, exhibit antisocial behavior, be unmotivated, or have low self-esteem.

* Personal Factors. This type of child might be a drug or alcohol abuser, pregnant, a single/teen parent, a married school-age parent, a product of a broken home, abused, or have health problems.

* Economic Factors. This type of child might be working to support a handicapped or unemployed parent, totally supporting a family, or enduring other economic hardships such as homelessness.

Assuredly, these factors, (along with other student problems listed in Appendix A), influence a child's academic performance and the way he or she responds to different methods of instruction in the classroom. For this reason, beginning teachers should have an awareness of, and concerns for, all children as they attempt to apply the school's definition and identify at-risk students. When the opportunity arises to develop a definitive profile of the children in their class or to assess factors that characterize children at-risk, new teachers must be aware of the impact that subsequent labeling and low expectations may have on student achievement and self-esteem.

WHO ARE THE AT-RISK CHILDREN OF TODAY?

It is not enough for teachers to identify students at risk of failing or dropping out of school; teachers also must be aware of the statistics that clearly show a tremendous increase in the number of poor and nonwhite students enrolling in our schools. Harold Hodgkinson (1985), in a recent major demographic study, points out a number of factors that beginning teachers need to know concerning the children with whom they will be working. By the year 2000, he reports, one out of every three persons in America will be nonwhite. The majority population will consist of those who have traditionally made up the minorities of the country. There will be fewer white, middle-class, suburban children in the public schools and an increase in the number of middle-class black students. The fastest growing populations will be Hispanics and Asians. Among all children in public schools, the number of poor, more ethnically and linguistically diverse, or learning handicapped students will continue to grow.

Hodgkinson further states that almost half of the poor in the U.S. today are children. One out of every four children entering public schools is from a family that lives in poverty, and one in four will not finish high school. Ten percent of public school children have poorly educated or illiterate parents. The 1980 census revealed that 59 percent of the children born in 1983 would live with only one parent (usually a single mother) before reaching the age of 18, and 14 percent would be born to unwed teenage mothers. Every day in America, 40 teenage girls give birth to their third child.

Often, children at risk lack the security and care of adults who are well-rounded and content with their own lives. Fewer children today have grown-ups who are models of success. More often, children experience their childhood in a world that is constantly in flux and disjointed. Their parents cannot find or keep jobs, have little time to offer their children, are angry, bitter, weak, frightened, sad, or mentally unhealthy.

The effects that influences of home life and poverty can have on a child's education are exemplified by those experienced by a young girl: she is eager to learn, seldom absent from school, and an average achiever with on-grade-level test scores. At one time, this second grader lived in an unstable household where she was sexually abused and poorly fed. Her mother died from AIDS and her father is in prison. Currently, the girl resides in a drug-infested neighborhood with an aging maternal grandmother. Always worrying and wondering what will happen to her if the grandmother dies, she plagues her teacher with many questions. "What will happen to me when my grandmother dies? I will have no one to live with. Where will I go?"

Fortunately, the socioeconomic conditions for this youngster have not yet ruined her capability and desire. She has positive self-esteem and experiences a minimal level of academic success; yet, the school system may consider her to be at-risk because of personal factors, such as her parents having never completed high school and that she lives in an impoverished home with an elderly grandparent. Children such as this little girl, along with thousands of others, are characterized as high-risk or at-risk pupils. These young children do not necessarily think of themselves as poor, deprived, or

underclass individuals in danger of failing school. However, if teachers identify the academic inadequacies of these students based solely on personal circumstances, they could lower their own expectations for the success of these children instead of providing them with needed remediation.

Children who are at-risk of school failure, underachievers, or discouraged learners come in all ages and exist in all grade levels. These students can be from rich and poor communities, homes with educated and uneducated parents, and neighborhood environments having high and low unemployment. The varied surroundings and characteristics of these children differ; therefore, the ones living in the barrios of southern California may not face the same difficulties as the Native Americans living on the reservations in Oklahoma. Likewise, the frustrations of at-risk youth in the Appalachian areas of Kentucky will differ from native Spanish-speaking children in Texas and native French-speaking immigrants who attend schools in Boston.

Home and school environments that interfere or interrupt the academic performance of high-risk children may fall within the categories described below:

Migrant Setting: The children of migrant farm workers travel and harvest crops with their families while living in temporary housing located in remote areas. These children may have an interest in learning, but they are often too tired and busy to study. It is not uncommon for them to have to care for younger brothers and sisters, and to take care of household chores, leaving them little time or energy to devote to their own education.

Transient Urban Setting: These children have families or guardians that move to a new address, residence, or location many times during the school year. These children seldom reside at a permanent address long enough for school records to include accurate information about their academic achievements or failures. Consequently, teachers have difficulty determining the academic capabilities of these students. With their high level of mobility, these children do not attend school on a regular basis. This is also the case for homeless children who move about the city or community with family members seeking shelter and food. Having an unstable home life creates major problems and causes these children to worry about matters unrelated to school and learning.

Uneducated Family Setting: These children have parents who are uneducated, but desire quality education for their children. However, being unable to read and write, (and often unable to speak English), they have no idea of how to help their children succeed in school. As the children grow older, they sometimes recognize the parents' dilemma and will try to handle family affairs that require reading, writing, and communication skills.

"Latch-Key" Setting: There are children who come home to an empty home or apartment after school. These children, referred to as "latch-key" children, frequently have several hours free to spend entertaining themselves without the supervision of an adult. The cause of this situation is generally economically motivated (i.e., both parents or a single parent work to support

the household), but may be socially motivated (e.g., neglect). Whatever the reason, the children do not have adequate home support mechanisms.

"Money-For-Love" Setting: Affluent, well-educated parents or divorced single parents sometimes give their children money and gifts as a substitute for love because they are busy with careers. These children generally have a lot of free, unsupervised time which, when coupled with easily available money, can lead to high-risk situations.

Weekend Visitor Children: If children live with a divorced parent but spend time with the other parent every other weekend, they may suffer from feelings of divided loyalty referred to as "Blue Monday Syndrome." This syndrome is exhibited on Mondays when the children return to school and teachers notice moodiness or a change in attitude after spending time with the other parent.

The living situations of children described above, as well as others, can greatly impact their interest in education, school attendance, ability to learn, mastery of the basic skills, and time for study after school. According to James Comer (1988), a prominent professor of child psychiatry, the root of poor academic performance of low socioeconomic, minority children is caused by failure to bridge the social and cultural gap between school and home.

Beginning teachers confronted with high-risk students may find it hard to cope with these problems, particularly when elements beyond their control produce fragmented learning for children who need consistency in their in-school experiences. Therefore, teachers, especially new teachers, must instruct students incorporating the knowledge of child development theory. Such knowledge needs to include social, psychological, emotional, moral, linguistic, and cognitive development. These areas are critical to the students' academic learning.

James Comer's work to improve schools shows that the educational development of students is strongly affected by the attitudes, values, and behavior of the family and its social network. As a result, young children from poor families are likely to enter school without adequate preparation. They tend to lack the language skills and the social skills required to meet the school's expectations. Their development or lack of skills is at odds with what is expected of them by their teachers and their peers. Obviously, conflict between home and school expectations can cause children to feel confused, alienated, or rejected. Because poor children learn rejection or exclusion by their teachers and classmates at an early age, their self-concept is often eroded, undercutting their chances for success in school.

Beginning teachers should understand the needs of high-risk students as they attempt to build a level of comfort and trust among all of their students who represent a diversity of home backgrounds. Since the minority and immigrant population is growing, an even more diverse group of children will be in the school population. These students will differ culturally, racially, and linguistically. They will be more nonEuropean in origin and may speak or write a language other than English. Therefore, the changing school

environment must be a place that will help students learn to communicate in English and understand the meaning of being an American.

Ensuring that immigrant children learn to speak English fluently so they may be participants and not just observers in the classroom often is critical to their academic success. However, First (1988) stresses the importance of bilingual instruction for if such students do not receive basic instruction in their native language until they can become proficient in English, their chances of later success in school will be tragically undercut. Moreover, their lifelong success and productivity may be threatened if they are unable to learn English at all.

In summation, American children of today represent many cultures, languages, communities, and lifestyles. They will become part of a generation inhabiting a global village. Preparing students to adequately cope within this information-age world and preparing new teachers to understand, value, and address the diversities of students of today will be a critical need in the next decade.

THE INSTRUCTIONAL NEEDS OF AT-RISK CHILDREN

Classroom activities proceed at a complex and rapid pace. It is difficult for teachers to be aware of everything that occurs in the classroom (Good and Brophy, 1987). Besides the simple requirements of the teaching process, teachers must react to numerous student behaviors and make any number of decisions instantly during a class period. However, many beginning teachers have not been trained to monitor or study their teaching behaviors, which influence student learning. Low achievers, especially, require a great deal of sensitivity, positive attention, and knowledgeable instructional planning from teachers.

Preservice training should also acquaint beginning teachers with the behaviors and biased expectations to avoid while teaching (See checklist, Appendix B). Good and Brophy (1987), as well as other researchers, have identified factors that can lower the academic expectations of children. Often teachers have lower expectations for students that represent:

1. A low socioeconomic group.
2. A racial or ethnic minority.
3. A family that does not speak standard English.
4. A poor or poverty level community.
5. An undesirable appearance in the classroom.

To meet the instructional needs of at-risk children, beginning teachers must spend some of their classroom time in noninstructional activities addressing the emotional, social, and physical needs of students. They may find it difficult and frustrating to provide extra instructional time for those who require reinforcement or review of content before mastery is achieved. Often, beginning teachers become quite frustrated when course schedules, large class sizes, disruptive student behaviors, and paperwork demands prevent them from giving their students the necessary attention to succeed.

Teachers should be aware of their facial expressions and nonverbal gestures as well. To succeed in the classroom, children from all backgrounds must be truly accepted and encouraged to believe in themselves. Teachers must be trained to concentrate on student strengths and weaknesses, praising real success and raising the skills needed for school and economic survival.

For new teachers to be successful in meeting the instructional needs of disinterested and discouraged students, Sagor (1988) provides the following suggestions:

1. Have high expectations and set attainable goals. Maintain a classroom where academic success is both expected and demanded.
2. Use mastery learning techniques. Set a single high performance standard for learning and demand that every student meet it.
3. Keep up a fast pace. Use stimulation and excitement in teaching to avoid periods of downtime that lead to student boredom.
4. Minimize ability grouping. Children judge themselves by the groups to which they are assigned, so consider the negative impact on their self-concept when they are always placed in low groups.
5. Encourage cooperative learning. Cooperative learning in mixed-ability groups allows every student to demonstrate competence and to feel a sense of belonging, usefulness, and personal potency.
6. Pay attention to learning styles. Provide an opportunity for students to show off their achievements by applying learning skills and using learning styles that allow them to be a success.
7. Teach behavior management and cause and effect. Gain the students' trust, so they know you are providing help rather than harsh criticism. Tell them exactly what they do wrong; give immediate, realistic feedback.
8. Be an advocate. Adopt a personal interest and commitment to the children and be willing to teach as a way of enriching their lives.

In determining the methods and practices that work with at-risk students, beginning teachers must be flexible and willing to change and adjust teaching strategies. According to Cuban (1989), it is not enough for teachers to be innovative. A school requires the right combination of people, resources, and ideas to create an educational environment that succeeds with at-risk students. He subscribes to using research and knowledge from successful schools that motivate low achievers to learn. His recommendations to improve and redesign schools for at-risk students include:

1. Smaller class size to permit more personalized instruction.
2. Teachers who volunteer and make a commitment to educating at-risk students.
3 Teachers who are willing to try different approaches.
4. The same teacher working with a group of students for two or three years.
5. Tests to match students with appropriate materials.
6. The classroom as an extended family where students care for one another.

7. Students linked to a wide array of social services and support staff.
8. School administrators working with teachers and staff to make "what is into what ought to be."
9. School principals endorsing classroom changes and providing the materials and emotional support teachers need.

New teachers must be trained to meet the instructional needs of students and to create success in the classroom for all students. Many at-risk students attribute their failures to the adults in the school setting and poor luck. Home values and the values of public school personnel conflict, leaving these students feeling as if they have little control over their own destiny. Few of these students have adults in their lives to respect, admire, or use as a role model for a successful life. It is often easier for them to become passive or negative in the classroom in order to preserve their self-respect than it is to acknowledge the chastisement and feelings of inadequacy that they get from their teachers.

New teachers should become familiar with the attribution theory, which reflects an individual's motivation to learn and provides a framework for understanding how students use causality to predict future successes or failures. In Weiner's (1985) interpretation of the attribution theory, he finds that students attribute successes and failures to the following four variables:

1. Native ability to learn.
2. Effort they put forth.
3. Task and difficulty of school work.
4. Luck.

Until teachers understand that success, respect, and dignity increase motivation to learn, these students will succumb to stronger peer and outside influences.

ARE BEGINNING TEACHERS PREPARED TO TEACH AT-RISK STUDENTS?

According to knowledgeable supervisors, new teachers are not ready to meet the needs of at-risk students. New teachers continue to come into the public schools expecting to greet the stereotypical student of a previous era when children were adequately fed and clothed and came to school rested and eager to learn. Until recently, undergraduate teacher training programs have done little to prepare students for working with diverse sociocultural problems that can lead to difficult, sometimes stressful, teaching circumstances. Practicum experiences often take place in school settings near colleges or in cooperative suburban schools serving more homogeneous populations. Frequently, the novice teacher enters the classroom with expectations molded by personal school experiences. The transition from a traditional, structured college setting to a public school that must meet a wide range of student backgrounds, abilities, and needs can be a traumatic experience.

To assist the beginning teacher in managing professional responsibilities to all students, support and guidance from administrators and effective veteran teachers will be essential. All adults in the school must work together to ensure that all children are successful in school. James Comer (1990) states the problem well when he says:

> ...there is no time to waste. We've got to make it possible for all the children to succeed so they can meet the expectations of school and society. If we don't do that, our country is on a downhill course in 20 or 30 years. So we've got to make a difference, and we've got to make a difference very quickly. (p. 54)

This comment could serve as the mission statement for educators today. Our nation cannot afford the loss of human potential, that of a single teacher or of a single child. Consistent reassurance and individual attention must be provided to teachers and students so they can succeed in this complicated, ethnically diverse society.

SECTION II
THE BEGINNING TEACHERS OF TODAY

WHO ARE THE BEGINNING TEACHERS?

The majority of beginning teachers are female and average in age from 26 to 27 years old. New teachers today, in general, are older than they have been in previous years. According to a 1986 survey conducted by the National Center for Educational Information (Feistritzer, 1986), the average age for entry-level teachers 15 or more years ago was 22.

Also, the research indicates that 30 percent of new teachers do not complete their fifth year (Griffin & Millies, 1987). Although one-third of the teachers leave the profession, teacher education programs continue to favor rhetoric over reality as they prepare teachers. As indicated by the National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education (1985), prospective teachers are taught to follow directions in the teaching manual and obey instructions from school administrators, whereas the real world of teaching involves making complex decisions about the students, the curriculum, and instruction. With such contradictions between rhetoric and reality, Cornbleth (1986) says that teacher education is neither the equivalent nor the mirror image of teaching. In fact, teachers often describe their first year of teaching as ranging from strong feelings of inadequacy to "blind panic" (Griffin, 1982). Even though candidates may complete a four- or five-year college program to obtain a teaching certificate, their preparedness for the classroom is usually mediocre.

According to research conducted by the Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (Lewis, 1989), future teachers feel more comfortable teaching students with backgrounds and experiences similar to their own. When asked about the desirability of teaching different types of children, white teacher education candidates indicated a preference for nonemotionally disturbed, white, high-income, rural or suburban, English-speaking children; black teacher education candidates prefer nonemotionally disturbed, English-speaking children; Hispanic candidates prefer nonemotionally disturbed, non-English-speaking children; and Asian/Pacific Islander candidates indicate no specific preferences.

As school districts enroll more nonwhite, non-English-speaking students, the preferences of beginning teachers are somewhat unrealistic despite their sincere interest in a teaching career. The undergraduate ideas and intentions appear to be idealistic. Research results suggest that aspiring teachers in the 1980s are much less concerned with income earnings than are those choosing other professions (especially males), are influenced by a desire to work with friendly people, and are not very concerned with job security (Roberson, Keith, & Page, 1983).

Therefore, the majority of today's teachers are white females insufficiently prepared to survive the unpleasant conditions and experiences prevalent in teaching. For some, the career choice to teach is viewed with the misguided

image of what it is like to stand in front of the classroom and control students' time and energy in an effort to make them learn.

WHAT ARE THE BEGINNING TEACHER'S NEEDS?

The notion that teachers graduate from a college program as a finished product with all of the tools needed to be highly effective classroom teachers is a misperception. As professionals, teachers continue to be learners throughout their career. Recent research has shown that beginning teachers need support in their new careers. Unless these needs are met, the attrition rate of new teachers will most likely remain high. While these needs vary according to a beginner's preservice training, age, life experiences, and stages of ego and cognitive development, common needs and problems do exist for novice teachers.

Inexperience is the biggest problem of new teachers. Difficulties in their first year arise because of the lack of training for specific jobs in specific schools (Ryan, 1979). Preparation for teaching does not usually ready them for instructional failures, classroom boredom, or the feelings of isolation that can occur during the first year of teaching. Lortie (1975) described the isolation of these early years by saying that "the cellular organization of schools constrains the amount and type of interchange possible; beginning teachers spend most of their time physically apart from their colleagues" (p. 72). This isolation may be overwhelming without collegial support. New teachers are likely to reach out for ideas and theories expressed by other experienced personnel whom they see daily. They look for survival skills and the promise of a quick cure during this highly stressful time. They often blame students or become more controlling in their teaching methods.

New teachers may feel trapped when paperwork, class preparations, parent communications, and meetings place unexpected demands on their time. Veenman (1984) labeled the first year of teaching as the year of "reality shock" because of the differences between new teachers' perceptions of teaching and reality. Hidalgo (1985) found that this "reality shock" is greatest for beginning teachers assigned to junior and senior high schools with large numbers of high-risk students.

Beginning teachers want to achieve confidence and autonomy in their roles and gain status among their peers. They are often hesitant to report their problems or ask for assistance. Galvez-Hjornevik (1985) reported that beginning teachers fear that asking for assistance will be interpreted as a sign of incompetence. Perhaps these perceptions are well-founded on the part of beginners. Ryan (1982) noted that beginning teachers frequently found veteran teachers to be hostile because they perceived new teachers to be a threat to the fragile social ecology of the faculty.

Kurtz (1983) found that teachers certified during the 1978-79 school year were frustrated and had feelings of isolation severe enough to warrant a change of profession. They also complained of having a poor understanding of expectations from both the district and local levels, unexpected extra class assignments, poor physical facilities for their classrooms, and a lack of supervision with specific feedback on instruction.

A study of 602 first-year teachers in New York City (Sacks and Brady, 1985) reported the following perceived needs of new teachers: moral support and guidance, discipline and management, curriculum and lesson planning, school routines and scheduling, motivational techniques, and individualized instruction.

Veenman (1984), after reviewing 83 studies, contended that the problems of beginning teachers are "person specific and situation specific" (p. 143). This means that all teachers have individual needs, and, that in some school and classroom settings, one teacher may be very successful while another will feel defeated. Without the support of a trusted building-level colleague or formal support program, the likelihood of failure and defeat may increase. Veenman also identified and ranked 24 of the most frequently perceived problems of beginning teachers, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Perceived Problems of Beginning Teachers
(Veenman, 1984)

1. Classroom discipline
2. Motivating students
3. Dealing with individual differences
4. Assessing student work
5. Relations with parents
6. Organization of class work
7. Insufficient materials and supplies
8. Dealing with individual student problems
9. Heavy teaching loads and resulting preparation time
10. Relations with colleagues
11. Planning of lessons
12. Effective use of different methods
13. Awareness of school policies and rules
14. Determine students' learning levels
15. Knowledge of subject matter
16. Burden of clerical work
17. Relations with administrators
18. Inadequate school equipment
19. Dealing with slow learners
20. Dealing with students of different cultures and deprived backgrounds
21. Effective use of textbooks and curriculum guides
22. Lack of spare time
23. Inadequate guidance and support
24. Large class size

New teacher needs most frequently cited in the literature are behavior management, classroom discipline, and motivation of students. These needs reflect not only the weak organizational skills of the novice, but a lack of experience in classrooms with students from diverse cultures and socioeconomic backgrounds. Every day, teachers are challenged to maintain discipline and order while engaging students' minds. New teachers need role models and support in order to learn appropriate methods of discipline and effective teaching strategies that motivate students in the classroom. Time, experience, and positive practice are necessary variables that will help beginning teachers balance discipline and motivation in the classroom.

Several researchers have discovered that new teachers pass through stages as they mature during the first year. Johnston (1985) noted the following two primary needs of novices at the beginning of the school year. They are:

1. To obtain fundamental information about the school system.
2. To obtain resources and materials pertinent to the information to be taught.

As experience in the school increases, beginning teachers' needs for school system information decreases. They become more concerned about teaching strategies and instructional processes. Fuller (1969) noted similar changing needs by reporting that the earliest concerns of new teachers center around adequacy of subject matter and teaching skills, finding a place in the structure of the school, and understanding the expectations of administrators and parents. At a later stage, new teachers' concerns shifted to student needs and the development of warning strategies. Hall and Loucks (1978) also noted new teacher concerns went through stages. They found that beginning teachers worried about personal needs first and classroom management second.

SECTION III
MODELS OF SUPPORT FOR BEGINNING TEACHERS OF AT-RISK STUDENTS

GOALS OF SUPPORT SYSTEMS FOR NEW TEACHERS

There is an increasing awareness of practitioners and researchers that new teachers in our public school systems need support. This section of the monograph deals with the common goals of teacher support systems that are documented in the literature.

Huling-Austin's (1986) literature review reveals five commonly accepted goals of teacher induction and support programs:

To improve the teaching performance of beginning teachers: Studies reviewed by Huling-Austin revealed that both supervisors and new teachers perceive that positive changes and growth occur more often when new teachers receive organized supported during their first year of teaching. Helping new teachers become strong, confident instructors who reach all students requires presentation of theory, practice, supervision, and coaching. Time and the support of positive, experienced staff are necessary to successfully improve new teachers' performance.

To increase the retention of promising beginning teachers during the induction years: The attrition of new teachers, coupled with upcoming high retirement rates of experienced teachers, demands that induction programs be recognized as one way to retain teachers for our future classrooms. Huling-Austin (1988) could find little data citing the success of induction programs in retaining teachers. However, she cited three studies that were successful in keeping teachers in the classroom (Blackburn, 1977; Hegler & Dudley, 1986; Summers, 1987). Caring for and nurturing new teachers in the profession is a promising practice; however, other factors such as salary increases, recognition of teachers' outstanding performances, better working conditions, and advancement possibilities within the profession will be necessary if a high-quality teaching force is to be maintained. One of the most positive and frequently mentioned benefits of induction programs is that they benefit the experienced teacher as much as they do the novice teacher. If appropriate release time, teamwork, and honoraria are incorporated into the program, these features may be excellent ways to reinforce "master" teachers as well as retain new teachers.

To promote the personal and professional well-being of beginning teachers: Fostering continuous growth and security on the part of the new teacher, as well as concern for providing successful first year experiences, is the emphasis of this goal. Huling-Austin (1988) contends that personal support for any new member of a profession is the moral obligation of those in charge. Weak or negative beginning teachers should be encouraged to find other occupations. Continual evaluation of teaching performance and attitude is essential during this formative period.

To satisfy mandated requirements related to induction and certification: While striving to meet compulsory minimal standards set by states for

certification, personnel in school systems must create induction programs that go beyond these requirements and provide models of effective teaching of today's student population. New teachers must be led to internalize good teaching practices and effective classroom management strategies.

To transmit the culture of the system to beginning teachers: Local school systems frequently emphasize this as a goal of their induction programs. The purpose is to help teachers develop a "sense of belonging" by being socialized or "bonded" to the system and its culture. According to several studies, this sense of belonging leads to greater feelings of competence, motivation, and commitment on the part of intern teachers. (Brooks,1987; Marockie & Looney, 1988).

WHAT ARE THE SUPPORT ISSUES?

Schools tend to be very conservative organizations. While most school systems recognize the existence of teacher shortages and the need to orient and support new personnel, schools are slow to change. In the real world of teaching, there often is a reliance on traditional, nonintervention methods for inducting teachers into the profession. New teachers have been left to "sink or swim" on their own in the weakest schools and the most difficult situations in a school. They are expected to overcome these frustrating times alone. In fact, the first years of teaching are frequently synonymous with the "school of hard knocks."

To retain teachers and assure students of a successful classroom experience, attitudes and methods of induction for new teachers must be changed. Planned support must be offered to help beginning teachers become more reflective about their teaching, develop better self-esteem, and develop high expectations for troubled students. Protection from overwhelmingly negative first-year experiences is crucial. All school personnel must realize that we cannot "baptize our young by fire" and still hope to retain bright, creative, teacher candidates.

Veteran educators should create a supportive atmosphere for beginning teachers. For these new teachers, this can be accomplished by:

* Reducing the number of students in their classes.
* Assuring them of at least one planning period per day.
* Placing fewer children with discipline problems in their classes.
* Avoiding their assignment to time-consuming extracurricular or committee assignments.
* Assigning them no classes that they have not been prepared to teach (e.g., not assigning a beginning secondary math teacher to teach an exploratory class in foreign language or not assigning a teacher prepared to teach upper elementary grades to teach kindergarten).
* Reducing the number of different classes assigned to them for which there are various preparations and lesson plans required.
* Giving them instructional aide support on a daily basis.
* Locating their classrooms in appropriate places in the school building and making sure their rooms have adequate space.

* Providing adequate supplies, materials, and equipment in their classrooms.

Placement of teachers in classroom situations where they can feel comfortable may be the most influential variable in first-year teaching success (Huling-Austin, Putnam, & Galvez-Hjornevik, 1985). New teachers who are placed in high-stress situations (e.g., large classes full of unmotivated and disruptive students) will not feel successful and will most likely become controlling or leave teaching (Hidalgo, 1987). A commitment to allow new teachers sufficient time and experience in the classroom before expecting them to handle the worst behavior problems and large classes must be made. New teachers should be treated as learners, not as veterans.

Materials that encourage active involvement in the learning environment are also important to the success of the beginning teacher. If teachers are inundated with textbooks and workbooks, they may not have the time or inclination to consider other materials. Such traditional materials make it difficult to reach the at-risk learner or the stimulus-seeking average learner in the classroom. In today's world of manipulative and "state-of-the-art" technology, the beginning teacher's need for encouragement and training to use up-to-date essential materials should not be overlooked. Encouraging the use of nontraditional materials will enhance the creativity of the beginning teacher.

Many of these support issues call for a change in attitudes by the entire teaching profession. Effective communication and training must take place so that the "rites of passage" for beginners become more positive, less threatening, and less competitive. Genuine commitment to teaching students of the future calls for a total restructuring of the induction support system. This support will not only be positive for the novices but should strengthen all who are involved in the common goal of educating all students.

PRESERVICE TEACHER SUPPORT

Preservice programs should prepare future teachers to understand the diverse students of today and to practice the most effective teaching strategies. Colleges and universities should prepare teachers who are knowledgeable and realistic about the expectations of teaching. New teachers must develop an adequate knowledge of their subject matter and be given opportunities for substantial practicum experience under the supervision of effective, experienced teachers. Practice in various rural, urban, and suburban school districts should be included. There is a need for college instructors to collaborate and work with practitioners in the schools to make such practicum experiences an integral part of the student teacher experience. Transfer of theoretical college course work into practical experiences must occur for students to be ready for the "realities" of teaching.

There is an emphasis today on preparing prospective teachers through a liberal arts education and practical training while teaching in their own classrooms. However, there is inherent danger of students not having enough practical experience before they enter the classroom. Unless there is comprehensive

on-site support for these novices, other careers may lure them away, and students will continue to be shortchanged in the classroom.

MODELS OF BEGINNING TEACHER SUPPORT PROGRAMS

In-service Induction Programs

A minimal induction support program occurs in most school systems at the beginning of every school year during new teacher orientation. This program usually provides an overview of curriculum needs, an introduction to system benefits and expectations, an introduction to school and district policies and procedures, and an introduction to local and system-wide personnel. Often these orientations provide new teachers with a written manual, including the following information:

* Curriculum philosophy, guides, and overview.
* System demographics, procedures, guidelines, and expectations.
* Information about the system's personnel benefits and payroll dates.
* Staff development and new teacher support opportunities.
* State certification requirements.
* Ideas for practical classroom management and effective instructional strategies to be used in the classroom.
* Lists of professional materials and resources in the system.
* Lists of support personnel and information on accessing their help.

From an in-service perspective, support efforts should begin as soon as new teachers sign an employment contract. Such support should not be offered in a vacuum, and experienced teachers cannot be the sole support for new teachers. Local school and key central office staff must offer support as a team. Commitment and organizational planning as well as training for other existing personnel are essential for success. A sample of a comprehensive orientation program including appropriate timelines and the roles of appropriate personnel is provided in Figure 1.

School personnel who plan orientation and support in-service for new teachers are cautioned by researchers to consider the stages of new teacher maturity. In a small study conducted in the metro area of Atlanta, GA, during the fall of 1988, 307 experienced teachers of high-risk students were asked to rate the support strategies and in-service courses that are offered to new teachers after they are hired (Eckert, 1988). The survey asked teachers to rate 23 support strategies/in-service course topics on whether they were "not needed," "very helpful," or "absolutely necessary." Surveys were sent to seven metro school systems. Staff development directors were asked to send these surveys to two or three schools with a majority of low socioeconomic students and many high-risk students (See Appendix C). Accompanying the survey were letters to principals explaining the task and thanking them for their cooperation.

Responses of this survey are listed in rank order in Table 2. According to this chart, veteran teachers indicated that the most basic and practical support strategies are "necessary" for beginning teachers. The highest-ranking strategies include a combination of in-service course work needs as

Figure 1
Comprehensive Orientation Program

The school principal should contact new teachers shortly after they are hired. At this time, pertinent information about the school population, goals, expectations, and culture should be shared. Other important first steps in new faculty orientation include locating the teacher's room and giving them keys to the building. They should be warmly welcomed in the local school by all administrators and veteran staff members as soon as possible. All support personnel should be introduced. The list of support personnel may include the following staff members:

* Media center specialist
* Social worker
* Nurses
* Speech therapist
* Secretaries
* Counselor
* Physical education, music, and art teachers

Central office staff in the personnel and staff development departments can be supportive immediately by helping new teachers complete paperwork for certification and benefit programs. They also may provide them with written orientation information and schedules for new teacher support meetings. Assigned mentors can write welcome letters for inclusion in the orientation materials. Mentors should accompany the new teacher to the first meeting with local administrators or the first planned welcoming event, such as a new teacher breakfast or luncheon. This is an ideal time for the first meeting between mentor and protege.

Table 2
A Ranking By Experienced Teachers on Effective Support Strategies "Necessary" for Beginning Teachers Of High-Risk Students (N=307)

Rank	Strategy	Percent	N
1.	Planning Periods (at least one per day)	66	264
2.5.	Self-esteem in the Classroom (in-service)	43	134
2.5.	Classroom Management (in-service)	43	133
4.	Instructional Aides	42	129
5.	Access to "hands on" Manipulative Materials	41	126
6.5.	Mentoring	37	114
6.5.	Parent Conferencing Techniques (in-service)	37	114
8.	Classes with Fewer Severe Behavior Problems	31	95
9.5.	Understanding Minority & Disadvantaged Students (in-service)	28	88
9.5.	Effective Teaching Strategies (in-service)	28	88

well as support resources, such as planning periods, instructional aides, etc. Table 3 presents those support strategies considered to be "very helpful" by these experienced teachers. (See Appendix C for a copy of the survey form.)

Table 3
A Ranking By Experienced Teachers on Effective Support Strategies Considered to be "Very Helpful" to Beginning Teachers Of High-Risk Students (N=307)

Rank	Strategy	Percent	N
1.	Cooperative Learning (in-service)	61	188
2.	Support Group Meeting	61	187
3.	Learning Styles (in-service)	60	185
4.	Thinking Skills (in-service)	59	183
5.	Coaching (in-service)	59	182

Safety and security needs also must be met before teachers can be expected to grow and learn as instructors. Induction activities and "start-up" activities should focus on survival skill workshops, such as classroom management techniques to be used at the beginning of the school year, orientation to district and local school policies and personnel, and basic curricular in-service. New teachers should have ample time to work in their classrooms during preplanning time before school begins. As the year progresses, beginning teachers should be surveyed about their ongoing concerns and needs. As with other effective staff development programs, new teacher in-service training should be planned to meet the expressed needs of the participants, address the technical aspects of effective teaching strategies, and help teachers be more reflective about their teaching and student needs.

Mentoring Support Programs

From the current surge of induction research, orientation support alone is inadequate to sustain motivation and commitment on the part of all beginners. A follow-up support system involving veteran master teachers and committed supervisory personnel helps new teachers gain a better understanding of all aspects of teaching and encourages them to feel better about themselves and the students. Some programs refer to the veteran teacher who assists the beginning teacher as a clinical support teacher, an assistant or support teacher, or a "buddy." More frequently, however, this person is known as a mentor teacher. Common terms used to describe the mentoring process are coaching, advising, cooperating, positive role modeling, supporting, and sponsoring (Galvenez-Hjornevik, 1985; Schein, 1978).

Definitions for mentors abound in the recent research literature. The most common reference to the term mentor is derived from Homer's Odyssey in which the mentor was considered a trusted guide and counselor and the mentor-protege relationship evolved into a deep and meaningful association. Most definitions of mentoring indicate that a mentor should guide and promote the

professional and personal development of the protege. The following definition, which was developed by Anderson (1987), is one of the most complete definitions in the current literature:

> Mentoring is a nurturing process in which a more skilled or more experienced person, serving as a role model, teaches, sponsors, encourages, counsels, and befriends a less skilled or less experienced person for the purpose of promoting the latter's relationship between the mentor and protege (p. 40).

Mentors in schools are usually paired with an intern teacher. Research indicates that the pairing process is critical for a successful mentor-protege relationship (Galvez-Hjornevik & Smith, 1985; Gray & Gray, 1985). Assigning mentors who are a little older than the protege, of the same gender, and are teaching the same subject or grade level as the beginning teacher usually will create the most effective relationships. It also is helpful if the two teachers are located close to one another in the school building, and it is critical that the mentor teacher like working with other adults and exhibit exemplary teaching skills. Other mentor characteristics that positively impact new teachers are qualities such as caring, helpfulness, genuine interest, friendly and outgoing attitudes, patience, and influential behavior (Gehrke and Kay, 1984).

Training is a crucial factor in the success of a mentoring program. A training program must be developed and conducted before mentors begin working with proteges. In a synthesis of research on mentoring beginning teachers, Gray and Gray (1985) noted that new teachers need more than "experience swapping" with veteran teachers. They found that trained mentors could move from a primary role in a new teacher's career early in the first year to the role of "helping relationship" toward the end of the mentoring continuum. This training model encourages mentors to "tell" new teachers exactly what to do at the start of their careers, but to move them cautiously into their own problem-solving and decision-making mode by the end of the formal mentor/protege continuum.

Critical components of mentor training are listed below. These training components have been taken from the work of Bey (1990).

1. The mentoring process - roles, understanding the mentor-protege relationship, and the leadership functions of mentoring.
2. Clinical supervision models - with an emphasis on the clinical cycle of preconferencing, observation, and postconferencing.
3. Adult development and adult learning - stages of growth, needs of beginning teachers, career cycles, ethics and professionalism, change theory, and stress management.
4. Interpersonal skills and communication - listening, speaking positively, and problem solving.
5. Analysis of teaching - coaching and modeling the instructional process.
6. Understanding the needs and demographic trends of the culturally and linguistically diverse student - teaching strategies and an awareness of student needs for success.

The Mentor Teacher Casebook (Shulman & Colbert, 1987), a case-study resource, presents five major areas in which mentors can help beginning teachers throughout the course of the first year. The authors suggest that mentors can help interns with procedural demands and routines at the beginning of the year. From this point they can continue support by arranging opportunities for their proteges to observe other teachers, have access to several kinds of models, and share their knowledge about materials, unit planning, curriculum development, and teaching methods. Assisting with classroom management and helping teachers engage in reflection about their own teaching practice also are suggested as roles of the mentor during the critical first year.

The following models of mentoring programs describe three conceptualizations of mentoring programs as support systems for induction. These models are applicable for use in any public school system.

Local System In-service and "Internal" Mentoring Model

This model is designed entirely by the local school system to meet the needs of its student population and teaching personnel. The "internal" mentor is the designated master teacher appointed and trained by the school system. This mentor is given an honorarium or stipend to participate in the training and support of his/her protege. Time is a concern for the "internal mentor," since many school districts can allow these master teachers only a limited amount of time away from their own classrooms. Examples of "internal" mentoring model programs are:

1. **The California Mentor Teacher Program** (Lowney,1986). Although this program allows flexibility for its school systems, two restrictions are placed on mentors: they cannot evaluate other teachers, and they must spend at least 60 percent of their time in direct instruction of their own students.

2. **The Teacher Education and Mentoring (TEAM) Program Model** in DeKalb County, GA. This large metropolitan school system pays master teachers a stipend for training as well as an honorarium for mentoring duties performed. The district relies heavily on its trained mentors when inducting new teachers into the alternative certification program for the critical fields of mathematics, science, and foreign languages.

Teacher Education and Local School System Models

There are two types of support programs that fit this model. One is a team mentoring approach using "internal" mentors from the school system, school administrators, university personnel, and beginning teacher computer networking systems. The other is a cooperative teacher education-school system mentoring model involving the use of an "external" mentor. An "external" mentor may be a college instructor or a trained teacher/mentor who works full- or part-time supporting new teachers. This master teacher is often released from teaching duties for a specified period of time, (usually for two or three years), and is assigned to a specified number of new

teachers. "External" mentors help plan and conduct the entire induction support program for one or more of the systems that have entered into a cooperative agreement with a local institution of higher education. They may teach college or in-service courses as well as perform the usual mentoring duties in the local school setting. Examples of teacher education and local school system mentoring model programs are:

1. **The University of Wisconsin-Whitewater Teacher Induction Program** (Varah, Theune, and Parker, 1986). This program has released results of its study using a team approach citing increases in professional skills, judgment, and competency of new teachers while in the program.

2. **The Beginning Teacher Assistance Program (BTAP)** in Orangeburg, SC (Simms, 1988). This program incorporates a cooperative team approach while working toward six goals. These goals include assisting the beginning teacher in acquiring effective instructional strategies for use with at-risk learners as well as studying specific induction interventions to guide future induction practices.

3. **The Professional Alternative Consortium** (Schiff, Irwin, and McBride, 1987). PACT is a partnership between Jefferson County Schools, the University of Colorado, and Metropolitan State College. In this program, beginning teachers are immediately enrolled in a master's degree internship program. Support teachers are released from classroom teaching duties for a period of two years. They provide mentoring services for the "probationary intern teachers" while they also serve appointments as instructors on the faculty of UCD and Metro State College.

4. **The University of New Mexico collaborative program** (Odell, 1986). This program releases nine veteran teachers from local schools to serve as full-time clinical support teachers under the guidance of a university-based teacher induction program director.

Comprehensive School System Model

One last type of support program that is a comprehensive approach for inducting leadership and teaching professionals into the field of education is a program such as the Jefferson County, KY, Professional Development Academy (Schlechty, Ingwerson, & Brooks, 1988). This is a school that operates for teachers much like teaching hospitals function for beginning physicians. The Gheens Academy offers an exemplary program to students while providing for the systematic induction of new teachers and administrators into the school system. In this school, staffing patterns and supplemental resources have been modified so that new personnel can be inducted into an ideal workplace. The mission of the academy includes giving special attention to increasing collegial interactions and implementing improved strategies for recruiting, selecting, inducting, motivating, developing, and maintaining a high-quality professional work force. This program is partially supported by funding from the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy. It is a promising idea for the restructuring of future schools and induction programs.

SECTION IV
A KNOWLEDGE BASE FOR TEACHERS

THE KNOWLEDGE BASE

Throughout this monograph there is an emphasis on the importance of strengthening the competencies of new teachers who are in need of assistance as they provide instruction for students considered to be at risk of failing or dropping out of school. An additional step to promote new teacher development involves specification of a content knowledge base for instructional leaders and supervisors to apply when planning support programs.

The knowledge base should be designed to address specific goals. Preferably, program developers will set goals to meet local program needs for new teachers. To assist in the process of organizing a knowledge base, the following section presents an outline followed by a bibliography on the following topics:

*Teachers
*Peers (students) in class
*Curricula
*Assessment
*School environment
*Parents
*Student's self-image
*Instructional materials/aids
*Classroom environment
*Home environment

This outline and bibliography can be used as a starting reference list of readings for a teacher induction program. It is suggested that each of the ten topical areas be included, for each area contributes to the level of effectiveness of classroom instruction.

KNOWLEDGE BASE FOR INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS/SUPERVISORS ON THE POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE AT-RISK STUDENTS

COMPONENTS	SUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	NONSUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	SUGGESTED RESOURCES
I. Teacher Overall Expectation *Teachers should believe that teaching is a service for all humanity and be sufficiently motivated and adequately prepared professionally to impart knowledge and promote growth of self-esteem for the students. *Teachers must be prepared to be life-long learners and problem solvers. They must be able to be reflective in their practice.	1. Should have a positive self-image and view teaching as a service to humanity. 2. Should have a positive view of the innate worth of every individual regardless of skill level, race, ethnic background or socioeconomic level. 3. Should treat all students and parents with dignity and respect. 4. Should promote growth of student's self-esteem as well as their academic skills. 5. Should provide a supportive, concerned, and caring environment and positive reinforcement. 6. Should be knowledgeable in subject area and continue professional growth willingly. 7. Should be an active and willing listener. 8. Should be perceived as a "facilitator of learning." 9. Should be flexible and willing to change methods or approaches.	1. Should not be dominating, inflexible authority figure. 2. Should never be too busy to listen to students. 3. Should not believe he/she is infallible. 4. Should not limit teaching techniques. 5. Should not be critical of others (students, faculty, administration) in front of students. 6. Should not show favoritism. 7. Should not talk angrily to students. 8. Should not humiliate or discipline a student in front of the class.	The resources are cited in the bibliography labeled Teachers on the following pages.

COMPONENTS	SUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	NONSUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	SUGGESTED RESOURCES
II. Parents *The parents are the most important key in a child's success at school. Their support is necessary if a student is to reach maximum potential according to ability. *Public schools must make a concerted effort to draw all parents into the school to assist in the learning tasks and/or to learn more about effective parenting skills.	1. Should work in school in needed capacities. 2. Should praise child for his/her contributions whatever they may be. 3. Should support the child's teacher whenever possible. 4. Should give time and caring support at home when child needs it. 5. Should encourage child to compete with himself rather than peers. 6. Should become as familiar as possible with the teacher and school. 7. Should be as realistic as possible concerning the strengths and weaknesses of child's school. 8. Should accept each child as an individual. 9. Should attend programs and other events at the school and verbally support educational values.	1. Should not be afraid of a "put off" by school personnel; should try to maintain regular communication with the school. 2. Should not put too much pressure on child to achieve. 3. Should not speak in derogatory terms about child's ability. 4. Should not speak derogatorily of teachers or school administrators in front of children. 5. Should not be impatient if child is slow in finishing school assignments. 6. Should not expect child to hold outside job if it is an added burden. 7. Should not expect child to strive for a vocation beyond his/her ability level. 8. Should not second guess the teacher's methods and techniques. 9. Should not use corporal punishment; should encourage children to develop internal focus of control.	The resources are cited in the bibliography labeled Parents on the following pages.

COMPONENTS	SUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	NONSUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	SUGGESTED RESOURCES
III. Peers in Class *It is imperative that peers make the low academic achiever feel as if he/she can make a positive contribution to the group, and to the entire class.	1. Should be encouraged to assist each other with lessons, homework assignments, and class projects. 2. Should compliment each other and accept the shortcomings of each individual. 3. Should seek suggestions from others before making final decisions. 4. Should be tolerant and supportive of classmates. 5. Should listen and problem solve with each other.	1. Should not criticize or ridicule others for making mistakes. 2. Should not spend lots of time socializing only in small cliques. 3. Should not be compared with other students having different SES backgrounds. 4. Should not constantly remind any student of poor academic performance.	The resources are cited in the bibliography labeled Peers in Class on the following pages.
IV. Student's Self-Image *Responding to a child with understanding and concern will enhance self-image. Also, positive statements about individual abilities and appearance enhance self-image. Realistic praise for achievements accomplished in the classroom is a must.	1. When the student feels successful his/her image is enhanced. 2. Positive reinforcement from school and home will enhance an individual's self-image. 3. A "caring" teacher along with accepting parents helps one's self-image.	1. When a child is made to feel that he/she lacks the capability to succeed, their self-image is damaged. 2. Criticism of child's physical characteristics damages the self-image. 3. Family background and socioeconomic status of an individual often contributes to a poor self-image.	The resources are cited in the bibliography labeled Student's Self-Image on the following pages.

COMPONENTS	SUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	NONSUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	SUGGESTED RESOURCES
V. Assessment *Cultural bias should not be a factor in teacher-made tests. Basic skills and survival skills should be tested in a manner that prevents biases of any kind.	1. Low academic achievers have more opportunity for success when they are tested with students of their own ability. 2. Tests should be fair and within the framework of one's ability. 3. Testing should be used as a teaching tool. 4. Tests should test for material covered. (Test what you teach.) 5. Test scores will reflect the student's weak areas and allow teachers to monitor progress. 6. Test should be graded and given back quickly and reviewed with students.	1. Tests, either standardized or informal inventories prepared by the teacher, should not be culturally loaded or biased. 2. Nonwhite ethnic groups tend to test poorly on standardized tests. 3. Standardized test scores should not be the only method for placing or grouping low academic achievers. 4. Teachers should not teach the test. 5. Students should not be labeled "dumb" or "smart" as a result of their test scores.	The resources are cited in the bibliography labeled Assessment on the following pages.

COMPONENTS	SUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	NONSUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	SUGGESTED RESOURCES
VI. Curricula *Both teacher and learner need to know what is expected to raise the achievement level. The curricula should allow them to plan and establish goals that permit them to identify the student's strengths and weaknesses. (Also, curricula should include an overall evaluation of the complete program.)	1. Should support and define learner outcomes and have clear objectives. 2. Should allow for mastery of objectives in a developmental approach. 3. Should establish minimum competency. 4. Should allow for prompt feedback and concrete evidence of progress. 5. Should encourage active involvement in the learning process. 6. Should be practical and relevant to the learner and help him/her draw upon real life experiences. 7. Should enhance teacher planning. 8. Should be directed toward cognitive and affective learning as well as higher thought processing.	1. Should not be directed only toward the "average" student. 2. Should not overlook individual strengths and weaknesses. 3. Should not be limited in terms of materials and approaches. 4. Should not be developed within a short time period. 5. Should not be primarily directed toward cognitive learning and recitation of facts.	The resources are cited in the bibliography labeled Curricula on the following pages.

COMPONENTS	SUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	NONSUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	SUGGESTED RESOURCES
VII. Instructional Materials/Aids *The written and pictorial content in printed materials, as well as audio visual aids should promote the heritage, lifestyle, family structure, ethnicity, values, language of all of students. *Hands-on, manipulative materials should be used whenever possible.	1. Should reflect the real problems and situations of people within various socioeconomic levels. 2. Should display people showing human emotions that are positive and negative. 3. Should represent the cultural, sexual, and racial groups in our society. 4. Should be directed at the intelligence and age level of a group.	1. Should not include comments or questions that would make an individual ashamed of his/her financial and social status. 2. Should not include sexist or racist content. 3. Should not emphasize heroes without referring to the struggles and contributions made by average "everyday" people. 4. Should not include a majority of passive written materials.	The resources are cited in the bibliography labeled Instructional Materials/Aids on the following pages.

COMPONENTS	SUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	NONSUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	SUGGESTED RESOURCES
VIII. Classroom Environment *The classroom environment should be somewhat structured, but not rigid. The teacher must be tolerant of various behaviors and feelings of all students in the class setting; all students should be treated with dignity. *Rules and routines should be taught and reinforced with consistency. Teachers should show respect for students and handle discipline using low profile intervention strategies when possible.	1. Should be organized for proactive management. Written rules and expectations should be visible. Students may be encouraged to help develop rules, routines, and expectations. 2. Should be positive in all aspects and a place where students feel comfortable. 3. Should be open and free for expression; should encourage student thinking. 4. Should possess a variety of materials for varied learning styles and some comfortable niches. 5. Should be pleasant and clean.	1. Should not permit students to become loud and disorderly. 2. Should not allow the use of profanity or vulgarity in the classroom. 3. Should not refuse student input in running and organizing the classroom. 4. Should not overlook disrespectful individuals. 5. Should be arranged so all students are visible and accessible to the teacher.	The resources are cited in the bibliography labeled Classroom Environment on the following pages.

COMPONENTS	SUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	NONSUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	SUGGESTED RESOURCES
IX. School Environment *The school environment should possess the best facilities and materials for its students. All materials and facilities must be accessible to all students. *The school must strive for a "sense of community" where all teachers, students, and families are working together to make the educational experience a successful experience.	1. Should provide resource materials, field trips, and support services for all. 2. Should offer extracurricular activities to all students on an equity basis. 3. Should involve all stratas of students actively, so students will take pride in their school. 4. Should promote positive school spirit. 5. Should promote learning in a variety of ways. 6. Should follow a definite code of rules for everyone; "No Double Standards." 7. Should utilize community resources within the district. 8. Should provide a pleasant lunchroom with varied, nutritious choices of food.	1. Should not be cold and unavailable to the students and their parents. 2. Should not provide an atmosphere that hinders learning and destroys self-image. 3. Should not possess materials that are not available to all students. 4. Should not promote intraschool rivalry. 5. Should not be a "play time" arena for students who want to attend to learning. 6. Should not elevate one or more "groups" of students above the rest. 7. Should not allow expression of school spirit to surpass individual pride and dignity. 8. Should not give unequal recognition to students who participate in sports, music, and social events, etc. 9. Should encourage daily attendance and academic progress or excellence.	The resources are cited in the bibliography labeled School Environment on the following pages.

COMPONENTS	SUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	NONSUPPORTIVE ELEMENTS	SUGGESTED RESOURCES
X. Home Environment *The home environment should encourage the child to strive for a goal by performing to the "best" of his/her ability.	1. Should reinforce the student's effort to excel academically by providing a comfortable atmosphere for relaxation and study and verbally reinforce the importance of education in the child's life. 2. Should provide time for study and thought provoking "talk."	1. Should not be placed where the child does not feel free to talk about problems, concerns, or matters of interest. 2. Should not be a place where children are ignored or "babysat" by the TV and video all the time.	The resources are cited in the bibliography labeled Home Environment on the following pages.

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SECTION V
DISCUSSION/CONCLUSIONS

Beginning teachers are human resources that school systems must cultivate. All new teachers will face complex and frustrating situations during their first years in the classroom. At-risk and diverse multicultural student populations will continue to be a reality in the public schools well into the next century. Change will take place in curriculum, strategies, and delivery models. Technological advances and an ever-increasing abundance of information will make it critical for teachers to consider themselves life-long learners and models of learning for students. New teachers must be prepared to stand up to the challenges of the future, and schools must organize support systems that will help beginning teachers to feel welcomed into the profession and keep them resilient and effective in classrooms.

Mounting evidence indicates that we are having a difficult time recruiting teachers, and that we are losing far too many of our new teachers within the first six years of their teaching careers. Furthermore, the teachers we are losing are often our brightest and best candidates. These novices are often lost because of unrealistic or unmet expectations.

Radical changes must be made to prepare teachers to face the realities of today's demographic trends and student needs. It is also imperative that public school systems study the growing body of literature on induction and support systems that will encourage beginners to stay in the classroom and continue to grow in their profession. A commitment to induction and retention programs will be costly in terms of personnel and finances, but it will be very cost-effective in terms of lowering the turnover rate of certified personnel in school systems. It will also create a greater sense of belonging, worth, and professionalism for all teachers in the system. The research on support systems for new teachers makes it very clear that good, experienced teachers have a craft to share, and that they also benefit when they are encouraged to work with our beginning teacher populations.

New teachers come to their work with enthusiasm and an open mind about learning and students. They want to be successful. They want students in their classrooms to learn. Today, a strong knowledge base of effective practices exists to share with these beginners. If this knowledge is presented at the right time and is coached into practice, we will create positive, effective teachers for the future. Multicultural and at-risk students will be accepted and dealt with in the classroom from the perspective of challenge rather than despair. In fact, a knowledgeable and supported new teacher population may be an answer to reaching difficult students. If supported, beginning teachers will be comfortable to seek solutions to student problems. They will look to new methods for reaching individual students and will encourage necessary change in our schools. The future of public education is dependent on the strength of our new teacher ranks. A commitment must be made to ensure that our beginning teachers are supported as they have never been before in this country.

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Appendix A

TWELVE PROBLEM STUDENT TYPES

1. Failure syndrome. These children are convinced that they cannot do the work. They often avoid starting or give up easily. They expect to fail, even after succeeding. Signs: easily frustrated; gives up easily; says "I can't do it."

2. Perfectionist. These children are unduly anxious about making mistakes. Their self-imposed standards are unrealistically high, so that they are never satisfied with their work (when they should be). Signs: too much of a "perfectionist"; often anxious/fearful/frustrated about quality of work; holds back from class participation unless sure of self.

3. Underachiever. These children do a minimum to just "get by." They do not value schoolwork. Signs: indifferent to school work; minimum work output; not challenged by schoolwork; poorly motivated.

4. Low achiever. These children have difficulty, even though they may be willing to work. Their problem is low potential or lack of readiness rather than poor motivation. Signs: difficulty following directions; difficulty completing work; poor retention; progresses slowly.

5. Hostile aggressive. These children express hostility through direct, intense behaviors. They are not easily controlled. Signs: intimidates and threatens, hits and pushes; damages property; antagonizes; hostile; easily angered.

6. Passive aggressive. These children express opposition and resistance to the teacher, but indirectly. It often is hard to tell whether they are resisting deliberately or not. Signs: subtly oppositional and stubborn; tries to control; borderline compliance with rules; mars property rather than damages; disrupts surreptitiously; drags feet.

7. Defiant. These children resist authority and carry on a power struggle with the teacher. They want to have their way and not be told what to do. Signs: 1) resists verbally; a) "You can't make me...; b) "You can't tell me what to do..."; c) makes derogatory statements about teacher to others; 2) resists non-verbally; a) frowns, grimaces, mimics teacher; b) arms folded, hands on hips, foot stomping; c) looks away when being spoken to; d) laughs at inappropriate times; e) may be physically violent toward teacher; f) deliberately does what teacher says not to do.

8. Hyperactive. These children show excessive and almost constant movement, even when sitting. Often their movements appear to be without purpose. Signs: squirms, wiggles, jiggles, scratches; easily excitable; blurts out answers and comments; often out of seat; bothers other children with noises, movements; energetic but poorly directed; excessively touches objects or people.

9. Short attention span/distractible. These children have short attention spans. They seem unable to sustain attention and concentration. Easily distracted by sounds, sights, or speech. Signs: has difficulty adjusting to changes; rarely completes tasks; easily distracted.

10. Immature. These children are immature. They have poorly developed emotional stability, self control, self care abilities, social skills, and/or responsibility. Signs: often exhibits behavior normal for younger children; may cry easily; loses belongings, frequently appears helpless, incompetent, and/or dependent.

11. Rejected by peers. These children seek peer interaction but are rejected, ignored, or excluded. Signs: forced to work and play alone; lacks social skills; often picked on or teased.

12. Shy/withdrawn. These children avoid personal interaction, are quiet and unobtrusive, and do not respond well to others. Signs: quiet and sober; does not initiate or volunteer; does not call attention to self.

Taken from: Jere E. Brophy and Mary M. Rohrkemper (1979). The Classroom Strategy Study.

Appendix B not included in copy received by ERIC.

Appendix C

Support Strategies for Beginning Teachers of High-Risk Students
Fall, 1988

This survey is designed to have experienced teachers of high-risk students determine better support strategies for beginning teachers of high-risk students. The following definition of "high-risk students" is being used for the purpose of this survey.

> High-risk students are those who exhibit the following characteristics: absenteeism, truancy, frequent tardiness, poor grades, low math and reading test scores, failure in one or more grades, lack of identification with school, disruptive behavior and rebellious behavior towards authority, verbal and language deficiencies, and an inability to tolerate structured activities.

Directions:

Part I

On the response form:

* Write your school's name in the space marked "name"
* In the space marked "subject", enter the grade level(s)
* Only responses A through D are to be used on the response form
* Rate the support strategies/coursework as:

A Undecided
B Not Needed
C Very Helpful
D Absolutely Necessary

Part II,

* Write in any specific suggestions you may have for supporting beginning teachers on the back of the response form.

* Send only the response form back to your Staff Development Coordinator/Director via inner-office (school) mail.

Name: _____

Subject: _____

A	B	C	D	
				Support Strategies
__	__	__	__	1. Mentoring - pairing the beginning teacher with an experienced faculty member who will share expertise and help develop understanding of the needs of high risk students.
__	__	__	__	2. Coaching - having trusted, experienced faculty members come into the beginning teacher's classroom to observe and give specific feedback on teaching skills.
__	__	__	__	3. Support Group - meetings once a month with other beginning teachers and selected experienced faculty to discuss problems and solutions.
__	__	__	__	4. Smaller classes for beginning teachers.
__	__	__	__	5. Classes with fewer severe behavior problems.
__	__	__	__	6. Classes of heterogeneous academic levels.
__	__	__	__	7. Classes of homogeneous academic levels.
__	__	__	__	8. Classrooms equipped with materials for "hands-on" manipulative learning experiences.
__	__	__	__	9. Planning periods (at least one per day).
__	__	__	__	10. Instructional aides.
				Coursework/Methods & Strategies
__	__	__	__	11. TESA (Teacher Expectations Student Achievement).
__	__	__	__	12. Learning Styles.
__	__	__	__	13. Effective Teaching Strategies (eg., PET, Madeline Hunter, ITIP, etc.).
__	__	__	__	14. Classroom Management Strategies (based on effective teaching research & proactive classroom management techniques).
__	__	__	__	15. Assertive Discipline.
__	__	__	__	16. Cooperative Learning.

A	B	C	D	Coursework/Methods & Strategies (cont.)
—	—	—	—	17. Motivation Theory.
—	—	—	—	18. Interpretation & Utilization of Test Scores.
				Support Strategies
—	—	—	—	19. Self-esteem in the classroom.
—	—	—	—	20. Counseling techniques (active listening, empathizing, etc.).
—	—	—	—	21. Understanding & supporting minority and disadvantaged students.
—	—	—	—	22. Parent conferencing and techniques for positive parent relationships.
—	—	—	—	23. Thinking skills and higher-order questioning.

Survey developed by Virginia Eckert, Marietta City Schools